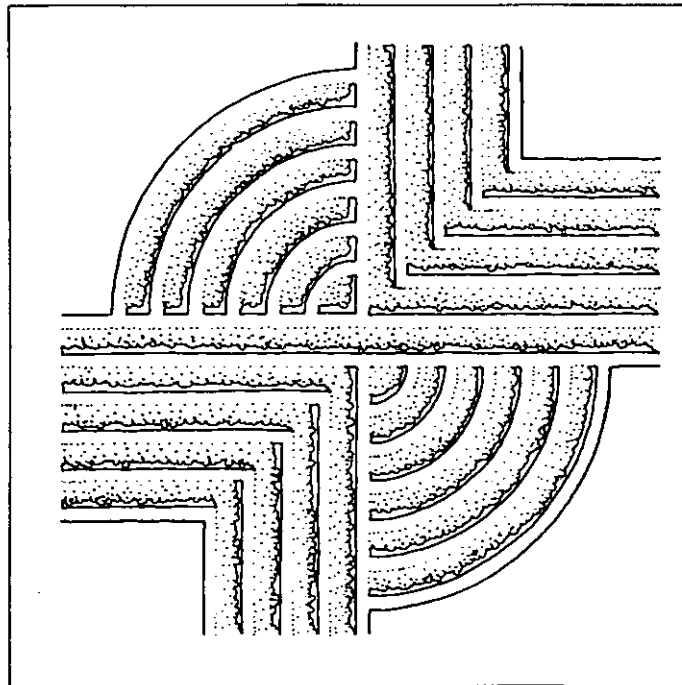


ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED  
GEORGETOWN COUNTY LANDFILL EXTENSION,  
SOUTH CAROLINA



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ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED  
GEORGETOWN COUNTY LANDFILL EXTENSION, SOUTH CAROLINA

Prepared By:

Natalie Adams

Prepared For:

Mr. Roger Banting  
HDR Engineering, Inc.  
128 S. Tryon Street  
Suite 1400  
Charlotte, NC 28202-5001

Chicora Research Contribution 147

Chicora Foundation, Inc.  
P.O. Box 8664 • 861 Arbutus Dr.  
Columbia, South Carolina 29202  
803-787-6910

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## ABSTRACT

This study presents the results of an intensive archaeological survey of the proposed Georgetown County landfill extension tract. The purpose of this investigation was to locate any archaeological sites which may exist on the tract and evaluate them for their eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

Examination of the site files housed at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology indicated that there were no previously recorded sites for the tract, although several sherds had been collected by Mr. Niels Taylor of the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office. This site was not relocated and no new sites were identified. The survey revealed that the southern 80 percent of the tract stood in water while only the northern edge bounding Sixmile Creek was dry. The entire tract had been stripped of topsoil and was badly disturbed.

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## INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Ms. Natalie Adams of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Roger Banting of HDR Engineering, Inc. The proposed 282 acre landfill extension tract is located in central Georgetown County (Figure 1). The tract is bounded to the north by Sixmile Creek, to the east by existing landfill property and an unnamed tributary of Sixmile Creek, and to the south and west by an International Paper Company canal (Figure 2).

The property contains a network of wetlands that drain into the creeks or the International Paper canal. Approximately one year ago the property was clear cut causing considerable damage to the ground surface. Vegetation consists primarily of waist-high grass, scrub oak and pine (Figure 3). Areas adjacent to creeks and the canal were vegetated with 40 year old pine forest. In the east central portion of the survey tract is existing cellulosic landfill. Developments will likely consist of road construction, and filling and borrowing associated with landfill activities. These activities have the potential to damage or destroy archaeological resources if such resources are within the affected portion of the tract.

This study is intended to provide a detailed explanation of the archaeological survey of the Georgetown County Landfill Extension tract, and the findings. The proposed project was reviewed by the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office (SC SHPO) and an archaeological survey was recommended, either at the reconnaissance or intensive level (letter from Mr. Niels Taylor to Mr. Roger Banting). Chicora received a request for a budgetary proposal for an intensive survey on June 28, 1994. This proposal was accepted on July 18, 1994.

Dr. Michael Trinkley examined the site files of the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. A project area map was faxed to the S.C. Historic Preservation Office on July 20, 1994 requesting information on National Register sites and previous architectural surveys. No National Register properties or surveys were found for the area (Dr. Tracy Powers, personal communication 1994).

The field investigations were undertaken by Ms. Natalie Adams and Ms. Missy Trushel on July 26 through 28, 1994. The laboratory processing of the resulting collections, curation preparations, and report production have taken place at Chicora Foundation's laboratories in Columbia on July 29 and August 1, 1994.

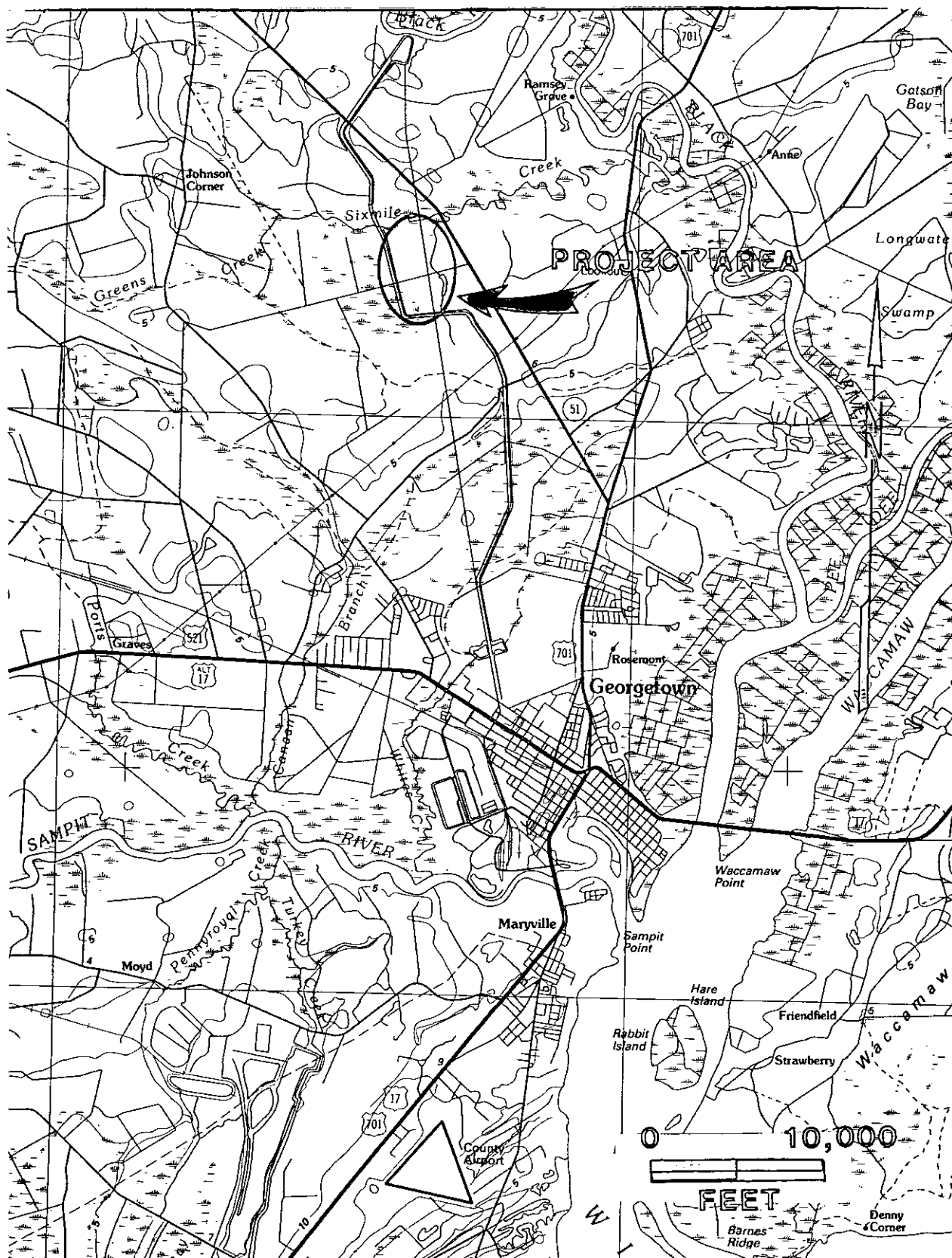


Figure 1. Location of project area on the 1:100,000 Georgetown topographic map.



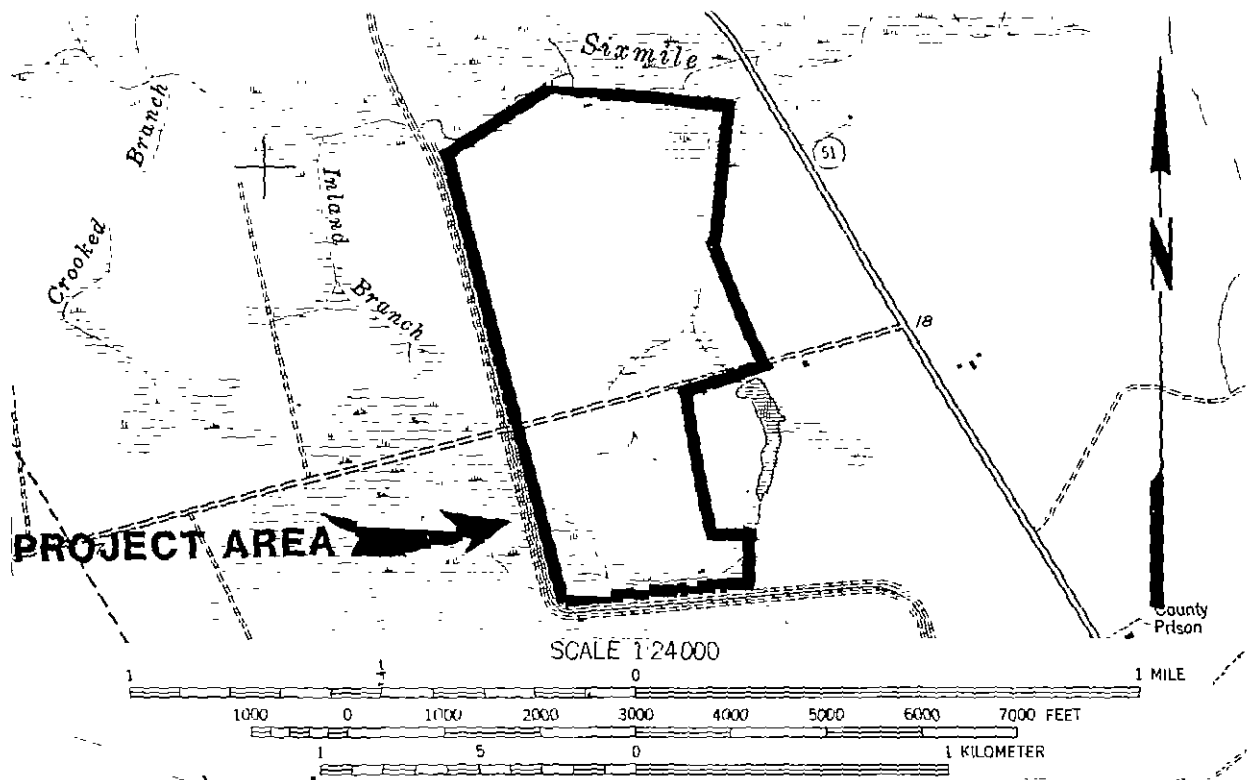


Figure 2. Location of project area on the 1973 Georgetown North USGS Quadrangle map.



Figure 3. General view of the project area.

## NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Georgetown County is situated in the northern lower coastal plain of South Carolina and is bounded on the east by about 37 miles of irregular Atlantic Ocean shoreline (including marsh and barrier islands such as Pawleys and Litchfield). The mainland topography consists of subtle undulations in the landscape characteristic of ridge and bay topography of beach ridge plains. Elevations in the county range from sea level to about 75 feet mean sea level (MSL) (Mathews et al. 1980:132).

The County is drained by five significant river systems, four of which (the Waccamaw, Black, Pee Dee, and Santee rivers) have significant freshwater discharge and only one of which (the Sampit River) is dominated by tidal action. Because of the low topography, however, many broad, low gradient interior drains (such as Sixmile Creek, just north of the tract) are present as either extensions of tidal streams and rivers or flooded bays and swales. There are many diverse wetland communities influenced by either the freshwater drainage or tidal flows. Upland vegetation in the County is primarily pine or mixed hardwood and pine. The study tract is primarily in waist high weedy grasses, scrub oak and pine. Large areas of Georgetown County are in forest, with only 6.7% of the acreage being cultivated and 4.2% being urbanized (Mathews et al. 1980:132).

The geology of the county is characteristic of the coastal plain, with unconsolidated, water-laid beds of sands and clays overlying thick beds of soft marl. The Georgetown County landfill tract is characterized by four soil series: Poorly drained Bladen loam (found in the southern portion of the tract), moderately well drained Eulonia loamy fine sand (found in upland areas adjacent to Sixmile Creek and its tributary), very poorly drained Johnston loam (located adjacent to creek beds), and somewhat poorly drained Wahee fine sandy loam (located in the central portion of the property) (Stuckey 1982).

The survey tract is characterized by elevations ranging from about 10 to 18 feet MSL. There is a gradual slope to the south end of the tract, a somewhat sharper slope toward Sixmile Creek and its tributary, and a narrow ridge running parallel to the creeks. There are a number of designated wetlands in the tract. Regardless, all of the poorly drained soils contain either large areas of standing water or are marred by tire ruts containing standing water. The only dry portions of the tract are those areas containing moderately well drained Eulonia soils along the northern edge of the tract. In the well drained area there were three large drainages running into Sixmile Creek. They are most likely erosional since the soil survey maps do not indicate that these are natural.

## BACKGROUND RESEARCH

### Previous Archaeology

Although considerable prehistoric research has been conducted along the central and southern coast of South Carolina (see Anderson and Logan 1981; Trinkley 1980a; Trinkley 1990a and 1990b) very little research has focussed on the coast north of the Santee River. The earliest published work from the area is Carl Miller's (1950) brief study of 884 sherds from nine sites in the vicinity of Myrtle Beach, Horry County. All of these sites were situated on small sandy ridges overlooking Long Bay and evidenced only light scatters of shell and pottery. A brief re-examination of the collections from one of Miller's sites (H01) in 1979 resulted in the identification of probable Deep Creek and Hanover wares.

Waldemar H. Ritter, from the Charleston Museum, was collecting from sites in the Georgetown area as early as 1933. Sites were found at Pawleys Island and on the Baruch property at Waccamaw Neck, but the descriptions are insufficient to allow the sites to be identified today.

Stanley South (1960a), reporting on a survey of southeastern coastal North Carolina and the northeast coast of South Carolina, offered type descriptions for the Thom's Creek, Cape Fear, Hanover, and Oak Island series. South's sites were found adjacent to the estuary, in similar environmental contexts as reported by Miller (1950). These findings were largely supported by his survey of Alder's and Russell's islands in the White Oak River in Onslow County, North Carolina (South 1960b).

South (1962) also examined a probable Middle Woodland sand burial mound in Brunswick County, North Carolina (see also Wilson 1982). The mound, formed by the covering of secondary deposits of cremated remains, contained few artifacts but is part of a widespread burial mound tradition found along the coasts of North and South Carolina, and Georgia (see Brooks et al. 1989; Larsen and Thomas 1982; Rathbun 1985).

Between 1963 and 1965 additional, largely unreported, work was being conducted in Georgetown and Horry counties by the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (Dr. William Edwards) and students from the University of South Carolina-Coastal Carolina campus. Information on this work has been gathered together by Erika Fogg-Amed (1980). As a result of this work, Fogg-Amed (1980) developed a sequence from the Paleo-Indian through the late Pee Dee.

Following South's 1960 survey and typological assessment of coastal pottery, work by Crawford (1966) and later by Loftfield (1976) continued to emphasize the North Carolina coast. While these studies tended to develop more or less local typologies, work in the late 1970s by David Phelps began to synthesize the North Carolina coastal typologies (Phelps 1978, 1980, 1981, 1982, 1984). One of the most important contributions of this work was the recognition that South's "Cape Fear" series actually represented at least two Early and Middle Woodland series lumped together. The application of much of this North Carolina sequence to the South Carolina coast is discussed by Trinkley (1983).

Recent work at Minim Island (Espenshade and Brockington 1989) explored an Early Woodland site evidenced by Thom's Creek, Refuge, Deptford, and Deep Creek pottery. Subsistence studies indicated seasonal use of the site with an emphasis on fishing and oyster gathering.

Most sites, based on these previous studies, are found on excessively to well drained soils, although a few are consistently found in areas which are poorly drained (which suggests that factors other than drainage may

occasionally have determined aboriginal settlement locations). Also, work at 38GE377 (Adams 1993) suggests that prehistoric sites are often located on major sand ridges overlooking wetlands.

Work by South and Hartley (1980) suggests that major historic site complexes will be found on high ground adjacent to a deep water access. Plantation main house tend to be located on the highest and best drained soils, while slave settlements may be found intermediate or even poorly drained areas. Both settlement types, however, tend to be in close proximity to the ricefields. Extractive or milling sites will be located near necessary raw materials and where the products can be easily transported in and out. Healthful conditions and drainage are not usually significant considerations.

Historical archaeological research in Georgetown County consists primarily of all levels of work at plantations along Waccamaw Neck. The testing and data recovery investigations include work at Richmond Hill Plantation (Michie 1987, 1988, and 1990; Michie and Mills 1988), The Oaks and Laurel Hill Plantations (Drucker 1980), Campfield Plantation (Zierden and Calhoun 1983), Willbrook, Oatland, and Turkey Hill Plantations (Trinkley 1987; Trinkley 1993), and Midway Plantation (Smith 1986). Information from these works have been synthesized by Trinkley (1993) and should be consulted for further information.

### Prehistoric Synopsis

The Paleo-Indian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977). The Paleo-Indian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Points usually associated with this period include the Clovis and several variants, Suwannee, Simpson, and Dalton (Goodyear et al. 1989).

At least three Paleo-Indian projectile point has been found in Georgetown County which were found adjacent to rivers and major tributaries (Charles 1986:16). This pattern of artifacts found along major river drainages has been interpreted by Michie to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Unfortunately, little is known about Paleo-Indian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleo-Indian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleo-Indian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Archaic period assemblages, characterized by corner-notched, side-notched, and broad stemmed projectile points, are common in the vicinity, although they rarely are found in good, well-preserved contexts.

The Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast and much later in the Carolina Piedmont, about 500 B.C. It should be noted that many researchers call the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of terminology, the period from 2000 to 500 B.C. was a period of tremendous change.

The subsistence economy during this early period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from some coastal sites indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but probable. Further inland it seems likely that many Native American groups continued the previous established patterns of band mobility. These frequent moves would allow the groups to take advantage of various seasonal resources, such as shad and sturgeon in the spring, nut masts in the fall, and turkeys during the winter.

The South Appalachian Mississippian period, from about A.D. 1100 to 1640 is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers.

There is minimal archaeological evidence for historic Indian occupation along the Waccamaw River. The only known historic Indian site investigated is Wachesaw Landing, located about 17 miles north of the city of Georgetown associated with the historic Waccamaw Indian. Historic trade beads and copper or brass items were found in addition to two flexed burials (Trinkley and Hogue 1979:1-19).

### Historic Synopsis

The first white settlers were drawn to the Waccamaw Neck area around Winyah Bay by the lure of lucrative Indian trade. The English, Scots, and French acquired land through proprietary and royal land grants, beginning as early as 1705. However, the majority of lands were granted in the 1730s (Rogers 1970:12, 20, 26). Access to water was an important factor in land development. The earliest policy was to grant narrow river frontage in order to give more settlers river access. Among the first grantees was Percival Pawley, who, through a series of land grants, obtained 24,000 acres on the Pee Dee, Sampit, and Waccamaw rivers in 1711 (Rogers: 1970:16-21).

Indigo was one of the area's first major crops, but had a relatively short life of less than 50 years. Production, which began in the 1740s and reached its peak from 1754-1760, was artificially stimulated by an English bounty and King George's War (1739-1749) which cut off England's supplies in the French and Spanish West Indies. The crop grew particularly well along the Pee Dee, Black, and lower Waccamaw rivers. The processing of indigo required settling through a series of vats which drew flies and mosquitoes rendering it a fairly offensive labor (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:75). One 1755 account mentions:

indigo has a very disagreeable smell, while making and curing; and the foeces, when taken out of the steeper, if not immediately buried in the ground (for which it is excellent manure, breeds incredible swarms of flies (Carman 1939:281-290).

Indigo required a fairly major initial investment, estimated at slightly over £2,024 (Gray 1933:I:541). A major benefit, however, was that its production could be integrated with rice on the same plantation. James Glen remarked:

I cannot leave this Subject without observing how conveniently and profitably, as to the Charge of Labor, both Indigo and Rice may be managed by the same Persons; for the labor attending Indigo being over in the Summer Months those who were employed in its may afterwards manufacture Rice in the ensuing Part of the Year, when it becomes most laborious; and after doing all this, they may have some time to spare for sawing Lumber and making Hogshead and other Staves to supply the Sugar Colonies (Glen 1761:10).

Unfortunately, indigo was "one of those rank weeds like tobacco, which not only exhaust the substance of the earth, but require the very best and richest lands" (Carman 1939:281-290).

In 1753 the Winyah Indigo Society was officially organized and named Thomas Lynch, Sr. their first president. This group established a free school, a library, and functioned as a business and social club for members. By the end of the eighteenth century, planters along the Waccamaw, as elsewhere, had abandoned indigo due to a market surplus and a devastation of caterpillars (Winberry 1979:92, 98; Lawson 1972:3-4; see also Huneycutt 1949).

The early economy also depended on navel stores, and to a lesser extend, on salt processing. In 1733 exports from the port of Georgetown included 7,361 barrels of pitch, 1,092 barrels of tar, and 1,926 barrels of turpentine

(Bridwell 1982:12; Rogers 1970:46-47). In the mid-1700s shipbuilding was an important Georgetown industry. Bridwell notes that there is evidence of shipbuilding as early 1738 and that by the late 1740s an active industry flourished in the Winyah Bay area (Bridwell 1982:14). By the mid-1750s this industry began to decline as other enterprises developed and the supply of shipwrights declined (Bridwell 1982:16).

Another crop was to have a more enduring and extensive effect on the economic and cultural life of the Waccamaw. Tidal rice culture began here in the 1730s and became the lifeblood of the Waccamaw until the slave system upon which it depended was ended by the Civil War.

George C. Rogers, in his study, *The History of Georgetown County*, attributes the rise of rice production in the area to four factors: rice cultivation had already been successfully developed in the province, a stable slave labor supply existed, land titles were stable and allowed for the accumulation of large tracts of property, and there were men who were ready to exploit this potential.

Georgetown District was the nation's major rice-growing area. In 1826 Robert Mills observed that in Georgetown:

everything is fed on rice, horses and cattle eat the straw and hogs, fowls, etc. are sustained by the refuse, and man subsists upon the marrow of the grain . . . . The most valuable lands in the district are those called the tide lands. . . . The yield of these lands is immense . . . they average three barrels or 2000 pounds to the acre (Mills 1972 [1826]:558).

The early history of rice is discussed by Clowse (1971:125-132) and Doar (1936). Although the records of rice exportation are vague, they do indicate that production increased dramatically after 1705 (see Clowse 1971:167-168 for additional discussion). In the late Colonial period rice profitability also increased. Perkins observes that:

yields were from 2 to 4 barrels per acre, and most plantations had 2 or 3 acres under cultivation for each field hand. Based on an average price of £2.3 (\$150) per barrel from 1768 to 1772, slaves generated revenues annually of from £9.2 up to £27.6 (\$600-\$1,800), with around £15 (\$975) probably the average figure (Perkins 1980:58).

Although most of the rice production figures are developed from shipping out of Charleston, Bridwell mentions that 322 barrels of rice were shipped out of Georgetown itself in 1733 (Bridwell 1982:12). In 1731, the closest year for comparison, 48,238 barrels of rice were shipped from Charleston (Clowse 1971:Table III). The low figure for the Georgetown port is probably the result of rice being shipped from Georgetown to Charleston by small coasting vessels, with the information not included in the official shipping totals.

In 1840 Georgetown District produced 45 percent of the national rice crop. Between 1850 and 1860, production peaked. In 1850, 46,765,040 pounds of rice were produced in Georgetown County. By 1860, South Carolina produced nearly 64 percent of the total United States rice crop and one-half of the state's crop was grown in Georgetown District. The average yield on Georgetown plantations in 1860 was 1,568 lbs. per acre. Prices ranged from 2.0 to 4.3 cents per pound in the 1850s (Easterby 1945:36; Kovacik 1979:49).

Profits on rice plantations during the nineteenth century were variable. Governor Robert Francis Withers Allston reported in 1854 that "the profits of a rice plantation of good size and locality are about 8 percent per annum, independent of the privileges and perquisites of the plantation residence" (Easterby 1945:37). Peter Coclanis (1989:134-141) argues that while the annual net rate of return on rice cultivation was around 25 percent in the 1760s, it fell to an astounding -28 percent by 1859. Regardless, the plantation system was run almost entirely on credit, paying off each past year's indebtedness with the sale of the new crop. Although the Georgetown rice economy was in a healthy, expanding condition in the antebellum years, the planter's capital was constantly being invested in land and slaves (Sellers 1934:55-56). R.F.W. Allston was one of the district's leading slave owners with nine plantation

totalling over 6,000 acres. However, in 1859, he replied to the Blue Ridge Railroad Commission that he was unable to invest in the railroad:

I have no funds to invest. All that I am worth lies in South Carolina and is invested in land and negroes; the annual income from which is pledged before it is realized (Easterby 1941:162).

Large plantations were the rule. The demand for the limited prime coastal lands forced up land values and pushed out marginal planters. By the early 1800s a hierarchy had developed based upon distance from the sea (Hetrick 1979:12). By 1850, 99 large planters (planters who harvested more than 100,000 pounds each) produced 98 percent of the District's total rice crop (Rogers 1970:253; Lawson 1972:8).

Because of this reliance on slave labor, Georgetown District had the highest percentage of slaves in South Carolina. From 1810 to 1850, slaves made up 88 percent of the District's total population and accounted for 85 percent of the population in 1860 (Rogers 1970:328, 343).

The planters of Waccamaw Neck were a small aristocratic group, closely knit by ties of blood as well as common interest. They were rich, even by standards of most of South Carolina's planters, and lived in a luxurious style. In 1839 planters along the Waccamaw, the Pee Dee, the Black, the Sampit, and Winyah Bay formed the Planters Club on the Pee Dee. In 1845 the men formed another organization, the Hot and Hot Fish Club, for "convivial and social intercourse" (Rogers 1970:228, 196).

The Civil War devastated Georgetown's economy. One popular journal stated, "no other part of the United States knows so well as the Rice Coast what defeat in war can mean, for nowhere else in this country has a full-blown and highly developed civilization perished so completely" (Saas 1941:108). Perhaps no area of the state suffered more economic and social damage than All Saints Parish.

Minimal documentation is available concerning the activities of the Waccamaw plantation freedmen following the war. There were some cases of looting and pillaging of the plantation homes, the "buckra houses." At first, some freedmen stayed on the confiscated plantations and worked under supervision of the Freedmen's Bureau. After restoration of the plantations, they signed work agreements with their former masters or other plantation owners whereby they were paid a set fee at the end of the planting season. Others turned from the rice fields to the burgeoning Georgetown timber industry for work. The majority of former slaves, it appears, remained on Waccamaw Neck. Here they could find ready food in the river and sea, and were among old friends and family. Too, the geographic isolation of the Neck may have reduced the travel incentive. Travel to Charleston, difficult and somewhat dangerous, required a boat and/or several ferry crossings (Lawson 1972:23; Genevieve Chandler Peterkin, personal communication, 1987; R.F.W. Allston Family Papers, South Caroliniana Library; see also the Freedmen's Bureau Reports for Georgetown County, South Carolina Department of Archives and History).

The blockade and occupation of Georgetown in 1862 threatened the plantation system. Union troops seized rice as contraband and set fire to rice fields as they went up the Waccamaw. Some planters continued trying to grow crops, but an estimated 75 percent of the county's plantation families moved to the interior of the state. The war was followed by successive crop failures in 1865, 1866, and 1867. Between 1860 and 1870, South Carolina's rice production fell nearly 73 percent. In Georgetown County, the 1879 crop was approximately 10 percent of the 1860 crop (Kovacik 1979:55). Financing next year's crop became a critical concern for planters who had traditionally depended on their factors for this service.

During this period, a number of things happened to land ownership: bankruptcies were common, the Freedmen's Bureau confiscated some lands and resettled former slaves on them, and other lands were sold at auction for nonpayment of loans or taxes. Companies such as Lachicotte and Sons and the Guendalos Company tried to profitably combine planting and rice milling to reduce operational costs. Efforts such as these managed to keep the rice industry alive until the turn of the century.

By the late 1800s Northern investors were buying up the old Waccamaw rice plantations. Having little, if any, interest in rice cultivation, many of these buyers used the plantations as game preserves for sport hunting. The loss of a stable and experienced work force, the competition from western rice lands, and finally the hurricanes of 1893, 1894, 1898, 1906, 1910, and 1911 that wrecked the dike system, ended the long history of rice production on the Georgetown rivers (Devereaux 1976:254-255; Lawson 1972:22-23, 409; Smith 1913:80). Elizabeth Allston Pringle of Chicora Wood wrote in 1906:

I fear the storm drops a dramatic, I may say tragic, curtain on my career as a rice planter. The rice plantation, which for years gave me the exhilaration of making a good income myself, is a thing of the past now -- the banks and trunks have been washed away, and there is no money to replace them (Rogers 1970:488-489).

Today most of the approximately forty plantations that dotted the Waccamaw have or are being developed into residential areas for permanent or seasonal residents and into commercial districts to service these developments.



## FIELD METHODS

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests and transects at 200 foot intervals in low probability areas and 100 foot intervals in high probability areas, with all fill being screened through  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch mesh. Low probability was initially defined as poorly drained areas away from Sixmile Creek and its tributary, whereas high probability was defined as the low moderately well drained ridge adjacent to these creeks. Should sites be identified by shovel testing, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

All soil would be screened through  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1 foot. All cultural remains would be collected, except for shell, mortar, and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

These field methods were put into effect with several deviations. In the poorly drained low probability areas, (approximately 80% of the acreage) there was standing water throughout (Figure 4). The tract had previously been clear cut and there was no topsoil. Subsoil consisted of clays which did not allow rain water to percolate. In these areas, transects were traversed at 200 foot intervals, but no tests were dug where there was standing water. Where

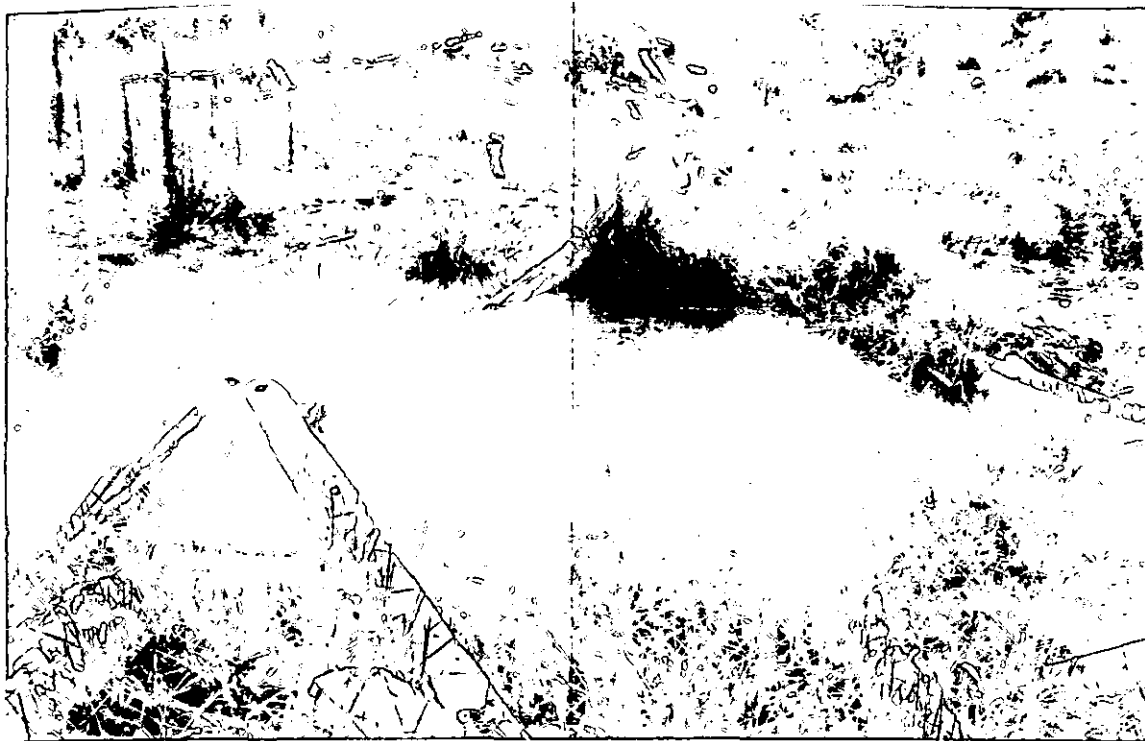


Figure 4. Standing water in a portion of the survey tract.

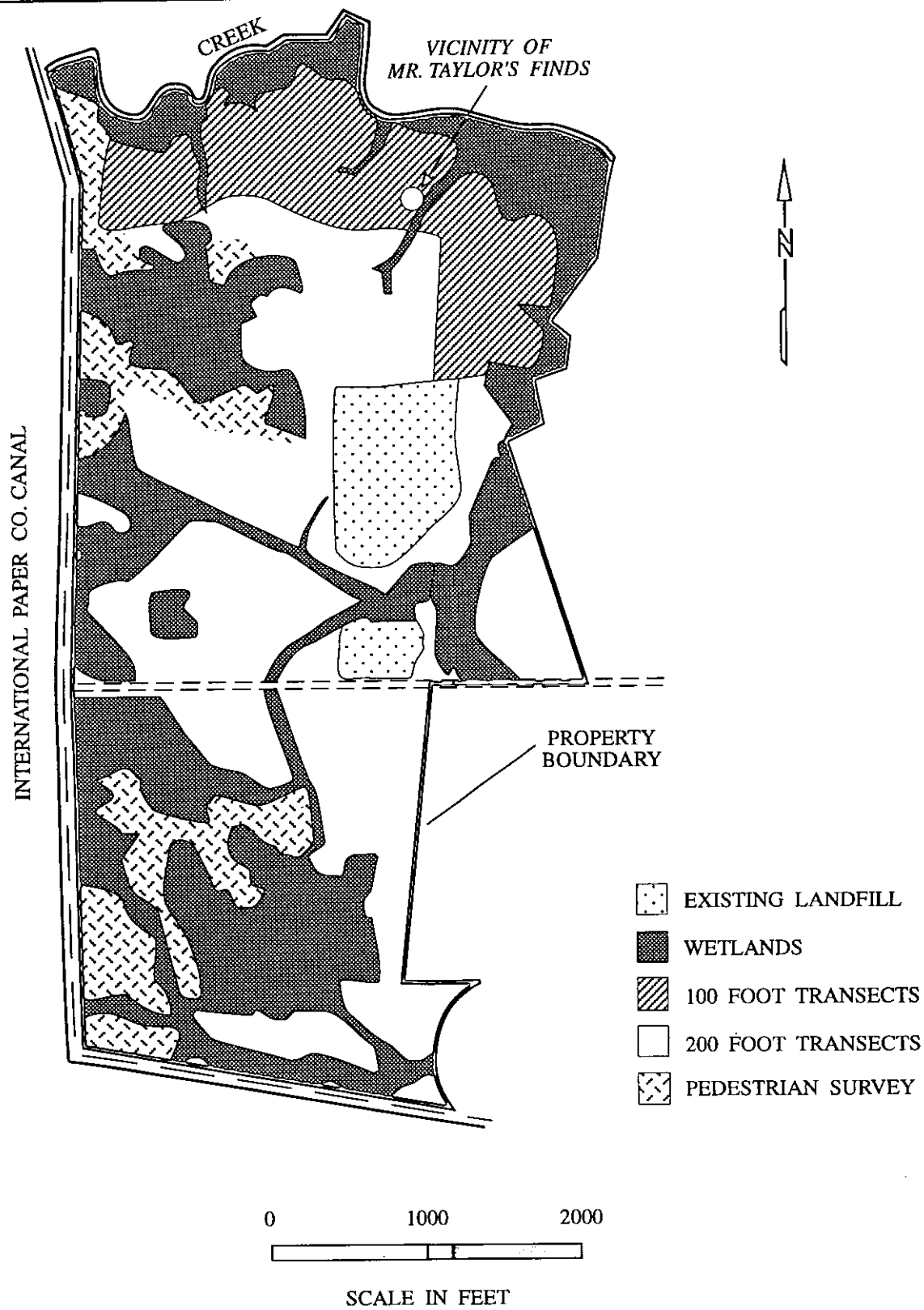


Figure 5. Study tract showing survey areas and wetlands.

water did not stand, the soil was turned over with the shovel to determine moisture content. If the soils weeped, they were not screen. Soils that appeared dry were screened as initially proposed. There were a few islands of higher ground portrayed on the wetlands map that were only subjected to pedestrian survey to verify soil conditions. Generally, this was done when they could not be discerned from the surrounding wetlands. Shovel tests in high probability areas exhibited a thin layer of humus or tree mulch overlying subsoil. Tests were normally excavated about 0.5 feet into the subsoil. A pedestrian survey supplemented the shovel testing in areas of good surface visibility. This was performed using a random walkover instead of along formal pedestrian transects. As a result, a total of 25 transects with 129 shovel tests at 200 foot intervals and 26 transects with 131 shovel tests at 100 foot intervals (Figure 5).

Field notes have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology as soon as the project is complete.

## RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

As a result of the archaeological survey of the proposed Georgetown County landfill extension tract, no archaeological remains were identified. Although Mr. Niels Taylor of the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office had collected several sherds in the northern portion of the tract, the site was not relocated despite 100 foot interval testing and intensive pedestrian survey. It is likely that Mr. Taylor collected the entire site. No site form has been filed by the SC SHPO. Given the extensive disturbance of soils on the tract and the failure to relocate the site despite an intensive search, it is very unlikely that the site could have contributed any significant information regarding prehistoric lifeways in Georgetown County. No further archaeological consideration is recommended by Chicora Foundation.

Although no sites were identified during the survey, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the survey tract during construction. Construction crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the South Carolina State Historic Preservation office or to the client's archaeologist. No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist.

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